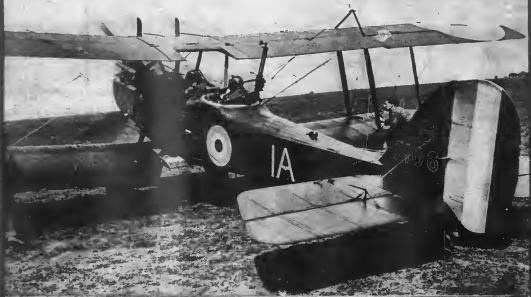


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VOLUME V
Number 1

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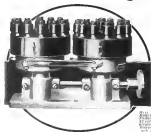
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part and distributor are
connected. The
distributor is shown
in position, ready to
ignite the mixture
which is supplied to the
cylinders.

For Airplanes

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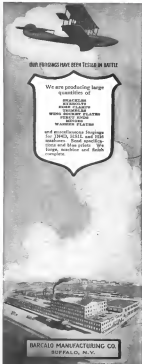
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AVIATION AND AERONAUTICAL ENGINEERING

VOL. V. NO. 1

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Vol. V

August 1, 1938

No. 1

Conventional Propeller Calculations

By F. W. Caldwell*

Under war conditions, when there is lack of time for extensive propeller tests and experimental work, we must be able to predict the performance of a propeller as to the horsepower absorbed at given airplane and engine speeds and as to its efficiency under these conditions. It is also necessary to make gross calculations for the purpose of predicting strength.

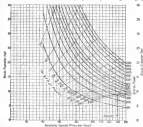


FIG. 1. CHART FOR DETERMINING PROPELLER DIAMETER FOR 15 PER CENT CLIMB RATE. ADAPTED FROM "PROPELLER DESIGN FOR LIGHT AIRCRAFT" BY H. W. HARRIS.

that there is usually no opportunity for a destructive test before the propeller has to be put into production. The main purpose of this paper is to show how such calculations are made.



FIG. 2A. PERFORMANCE REQUIREMENTS AT VARIOUS SPEEDS OR POWERS.

The first step is to choose a diameter. The chart, Fig. 1, shows the maximum diameter required to maintain the climb as low as 15 per cent. The chart also shows the maximum propeller speed that can be used for any given diameter and horsepower. If the speed is greater than that shown in the maximum, a smaller diameter must be chosen for the propeller, and there is a consequent loss in efficiency.

The diameter given are maximum diameters for good practice. In general the diameter should be made as large as possible without making the blades so narrow that they will be better off when wood construction is used. Blade de-

signers should bear in mind the necessity of ample propeller diameter to bring out a power plant installation, as otherwise excellent design may be spoiled by limitation of clearance, resulting in too small a propeller diameter.

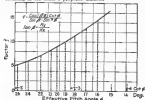


FIG. 1B. VALUES OF FACTOR f FOR VARIOUS EFFECTIVE PROPELLER PITCH ANGLES.

After determining the diameter, a blade form must be chosen. The shape of the outline of the blade form is as essential as, since different blade forms are based on different theories. The difference in efficiency of different blade forms is not great, but the difference in strength is considerable. The form shown in Fig. 2 is a fair one, both as to efficiency and strength.

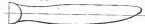


FIG. 2. EXPERIMENTAL BLADE FORM.

ρ = specific weight of air expressed in pounds per cubic foot.
 g = acceleration due to gravity = 32.2 f.p.s.
 M_0 = lift coefficient, absolute value.
 A_0 = drag (or lift) coefficient, absolute value.
 L = vertical component of force (lb.) on aerodynamic profile.
 D = horizontal component of force (lb.) on aerodynamic profile.
 f = factor for computing work absorbed by propeller.
 ϕ = angular constant depending on blade form.
 ϕ = angle of plane surface, square inch.
 V = velocity of airplane, feet per second.
 P_p = effective pitch of propeller or advance per turn.
 V_p = velocity (or lateral path) of propeller element, feet per second.
 V_s = velocity of slip stream, feet per second.
 b = maximum blade width, feet.

* Aeronautical Mechanical Engineer, American Aviation, Airport Corp., 11 E. 42nd St., New York 17, N. Y.

δ = effective blade width (inches) for blade form in Fig. 3

N = engine speed at ground level, rev. per second

N_1 = engine speed at 30,000 ft. altitude, rev. per second

d = diameter of propeller, feet

D = equivalent diameter of propeller, feet = 0.986d (for computing work absorbed only)

R = radius of propeller, feet

T = thrust, pounds

A = area of propeller disk, square feet

A_1 = effective area of propeller disk, square feet

ϵ = efficiency, per cent

ϵ_1 = efficiency, per cent (corrected for the 5 per cent area considered coefficient due to the radiators)

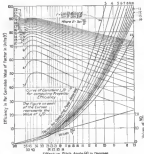


FIG. 3. CURVES SHOWING THE THEORETICAL EFFICIENCY OF AN AIRCRAFT PROPPELLER, BASED ON THE THEORY OF THE AIRCRAFT PROPPELLER.

Efficiency, ϵ , varies as $\frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta}$

$$\epsilon = \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \quad (\text{Efficiency per cent})$$

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This may be accomplished by taking an average value of δ for the blade and a weighted mean for the blade width. The power absorbed per blade is then found from the formula:

$$\text{Power} = \frac{1}{2} K A B^3 N^3 \quad \text{hp. per blade} \quad (3)$$

The value of f may be obtained by taking 0.58 of the diameter to represent an equivalent diameter for the whole blade. (This value has been established experimentally for blade form shown in Fig. 3.) Then the value of $f, 0.58d$, is calculated, as is the corresponding angle whose tangent is 0.336d, and the corresponding value of f is found on the chart, Fig. 3.

The arc length corresponding to the angle is followed until it crosses the line corresponding to its d, D of the section, and the corresponding value of f is read on the scale at the right or left. An average value of $f, 0$ may be assumed with all these corrections to be fairly, when using this method.

The required constant, C , is dependent on the blade form and must be determined experimentally. For the blade form shown in Fig. 3 it is 3.1, while it varies from 0.80 to 1.5 for different blade forms now in use. The required C represents the weighted mean of the blade width.

The weighted mean of the blade width is found by averaging the mean width of a curve in which the edges of the profile of the blades per inch are laid off at intervals and the corresponding blade widths are laid off as ordinates. This empirical method gives good results.

The best method of comparing propeller efficiency remains in an extensive of the semi-propeller theory. The theoretical efficiency, ϵ , ($\epsilon = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \sin^2 \theta$) is computed from the thrust T , compared and then the algebraic velocity from the input formula $T = \frac{1}{2} \rho A V^2$.

To compare the actual efficiency, a representative point along the blade is taken. This will usually be at 75 or 80 per cent of the radius according to the blade shape. For the blade shown in Fig. 3 it is at about 28 per cent. The product of the theoretical and actual efficiency gives the actual efficiency very closely. There is a further small correction due to the speed component of the slip stream.

The angle whose tangent is $T, 0.336d$ is found and a corresponding ordinate θ , Fig. 3, is followed until it crosses the efficiency line corresponding to the d, D of the section section at 0.58 of the radius. This θ will be about twice in good design.

Propeller Materials

Wood has been the favored propeller material up to the present. Its success is mainly due to its light, flexible strength, light weight and low cost. It is also an important factor in reducing propeller stresses, as can be seen from Fig. 4.

Disadvantages of the wood propeller are:

1. It is not as strong as metal.

2. It is not as durable as metal.

3. It is not as light as metal.

4. It is not as strong as metal.

5. It is not as durable as metal.

6. It is not as light as metal.

7. It is not as strong as metal.

8. It is not as durable as metal.

9. It is not as light as metal.

10. It is not as strong as metal.

11. It is not as durable as metal.

12. It is not as light as metal.

13. It is not as strong as metal.

14. It is not as durable as metal.

15. It is not as light as metal.

16. It is not as strong as metal.

17. It is not as durable as metal.



FIG. 7. VIEW OF A PROPPELLER SHOWING THE ATTACHMENT OF THE BLADES TO THE HUB.



FIG. 8. PARTS OF PROPPELLER HUB, IN FIG. 7.

A—Hub, showing the attachment of the blades. B—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub. C—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub.

D—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub. E—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub.

F—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub. G—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub.

H—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub. I—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub.

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P—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub. Q—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub.

R—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub. S—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub.

T—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub. U—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub.

V—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub. W—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub.

X—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub. Y—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub.

Z—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub. AA—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub.

AB—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub. AC—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub.

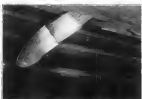


FIG. 11. PROPPELLER BLADE SHOWN IN A RADIAL POSITION. THE BLADE IS SHOWN IN A RADIAL POSITION.

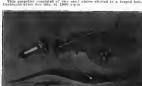


FIG. 12. PARTS OF PROPPELLER HUB, IN FIG. 11.

A—Hub, showing the attachment of the blades. B—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub. C—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub.

D—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub. E—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub.

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BH—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub. BI—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub.

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BP—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub. BQ—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub.

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BT—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub. BU—Blade, showing the attachment of the hub.

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Available

The aerobal engine and has an important bearing on the propeller efficiency. The characteristics shown in Figs. 12 to 15 are taken from a report issued in 1931 by the National Physical Laboratory of England, and are about as good as any that have been published.

Adjustable-Pitch Propeller

Almost from the start of air-propeller work, a propeller with adjustable pitch has been considered highly desirable, because it is believed that the efficiency of the propeller could then be maintained constant for different airplane speeds. This is based on the theory that the L/D of the aerobal section is the controlling factor in the propeller efficiency, a theory which is not based on its practice.



Fig. 14. BLADE OF NORTH PROPULSION, GRUNDY, ET AL.

Fig. 12 illustrates the effect of varying pitch angle on the apparent angle of attack of a propeller section. This angle is usually shown as 2 deg. for a flight speed of 130 m.p.h. and the speed will then have a value of K_p/K_a of about twenty. In climbing at the rate of 50 m.p.h. the apparent angle of attack will be increased to about 34 deg., and the K_p/K_a value will drop to ten or less.

Fig. 13 shows that the optimum in true angle of attack is not so great when the slip stream velocity is taken into account, besides that, the theoretical efficiency ($F/V \times 100$) is greatly reduced in climbing and is not increased by an increase in the aerobal efficiency.

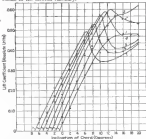


Fig. 12. CHARACTERISTICS OF TYPICAL AIRPLANE FROM 1931. REPORT OF NATIONAL PHYSICAL LABORATORY, ENGLAND.

An analysis of an adjustable pitch propeller (dependent on this paper) shows an gain in efficiency. There is, however, a net gain in horsepower delivered to the plane, owing to the increase of engine speed in climbing. The cost in question is the gain in the rate of climb is 10 per cent. Fig. 13 shows the gain in the rate of climb as a somewhat lower machine. The keeping up of the engine speed because of altitude is consistent with the development of an engine with torque that is constant at high and low altitudes. From the performance

curves shown in Fig. 13 it is apparent that the climbing rate of a plane equipped with such an engine would be greatly improved if the engine speed near the ground were increased and kept the same at the plane altitude.

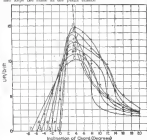


Fig. 13.

It is the opinion of the author that, if it becomes desirable, an adjustable pitch propeller of fairly light weight can be built for a smooth running engine, such as the Liberty design,

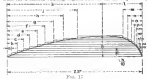


Fig. 14.

but considerable trouble may be expected with engines that have an inherent vibration.

Constant Engine Power at Altitude

The author has been told by many engine designers that it

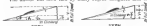


Fig. 15. (LEFT) AND (RIGHT). EFFECT OF PLANE VELOCITY ON ANGLE OF ATTACK.

would be unfair to hold an engine in account for its power at altitude, because the propeller efficiency would then be so low that the net gain would be small.

All associated engineers who have made a study of the subject realize that the development of an engine with one speed, or nearly constant torque at altitude up to 20,000 or 30,000 ft., is the outstanding opportunity for improvement in airplane performance. It is just as easy to design propellers for operation at 20,000 ft. as it is to design them for performance at the ground level, so that the problem is one that must be solved by the engine designers.

The air density at 20,000 ft. is at the order of 50 per cent of that at ground level. The density of air is about 0.05 lb. per cu. ft. of the density of water. Yet we are using the same amount of propeller in airplanes as in cars or boats, and we are obtaining no greater efficiencies as high as 80 per cent, something which cannot be accounted for in terms of propeller efficiency alone, but a propeller designed for use at 20,000

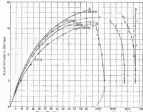


Fig. 16. COMPARISON OF EXISTING TESTS OF AEROBAL EFFICIENCY. (LEFT) AND (RIGHT). EFFECT OF PLANE VELOCITY ON ANGLE OF ATTACK.

It will function without appreciable loss of efficiency near the ground, as may be seen from an analysis in which airplane and propeller performance are worked out in a typical case.

The K_p/K_a constant torque K_p as used in the following analysis means that the torque is independent of both the engine speed and the altitude. This is the simplest case to assume, and the designer applies exactly to this case along. An engine that attains this requirement only in part would, of course, have a performance intermediate between that of the conventional airplane engine and that of the engine with constant torque. This analysis is applicable equally to a propeller turbine and in perhaps of more interest in relation to a stream turbine, owing to the range of speed involved.

In comparing the performance of the airplane and propeller at 20,000 ft. altitude and at the ground, we will assume:

1. Speed of airplane at ground level, 130 m.p.h., or 181 f.p.s.
2. Output of engine, 304 hp. (at 1460 r.p.m., or 33.5 f.p.s.)
3. Diameter of propeller, 11.5 ft. (area 104 sq. ft.)
4. Total lifting surface of plane, $A = 640$ sq. ft.
5. Total weight of loaded plane, $W = 3440$ lb.

The value of K_p is simple and is computed from the formula:

$$K_p = \frac{W}{A} \times \frac{1}{V^2} \times 100 \quad (4)$$

The corresponding value of K_p/K_a may be taken as 12.8.

The efficiency of the propeller may be computed by a method of trial as follows: First assume an efficiency of 80 per cent. The thrust will then be:

$$T = 0.88 \times 250 \times 500 = 110,000 \quad (5)$$

The slip stream velocity can be computed from the impulse formula (2), and thus:

$$V = \frac{T}{A} = \frac{110,000}{104} \times 1.1 \times 0.027 = 37.5 \text{ f.p.s.} \quad (6)$$

which means that the slip is 9 per cent.

From the Prandtl method the theoretical efficiency can be found as follows:

$$\eta = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^2} = \frac{100}{1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{37.5}{181} \right)^2} = 0.933 \quad (7)$$

Assuming that the section at 0.25 radius is representative of the propeller as a whole and that the value of L/D at this section is primary, the efficiency by the aerobal method can be obtained from the chart shown in Fig. 9. It is that efficiency to find the corresponding value of K_p/K_a , which is:

$$\frac{K_p}{K_a} = \frac{100}{12.8} \times \frac{0.75}{0.933} = 8.04 \quad (8)$$

The aerobal efficiency is found from Fig. 2 to be 80 per cent. The product of the two efficiencies (see equation 8) is:

$$0.80 \times 0.80 = 0.64 \text{ per cent. A further correction due to the spiral component of the slip stream will reduce this to 50 per cent. Since the assumption made in comparing the dipstream velocity was correct it need not be compensated.}$$

The true of the supporting surface at ground level and at

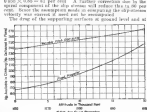


Fig. 17. PERFORMANCE OF PROPELLERS FOR CONSTANT TORQUE.

a plane velocity of 181 f.p.s. will then be $2000 \div 12.8 = 156$ pounds. The correct reasoning, that is to say, the propeller thrust must be the wing drag will be $320 \div 2.1 = 152$ pounds. At 20,000 ft. altitude the air density can be taken as 50 per cent of the density at ground level. As a first approximation assume that the propeller speed will vary in proportion to the cube root of the horsepower, the horsepower being proportional to the engine speed (if constant torque is assumed), and in inverse proportion to the cube root of the density, thus its level lift:

$$K_p = 33.5 \sqrt[3]{\frac{3}{0.5} \times \frac{1}{1.1}} = 30 \text{ f.p.s.} = 2060 \text{ r.p.m.} \quad (9)$$

Assuming a constant torque the engine will then deliver 300 hp. Assuming 80 per cent propeller efficiency:

$$T = \frac{300 \times 3.6 \times 10^6}{33.5} = 321,000$$

As a first approximation to determine K_p , assume the velocity to be proportional to the cube root of the horsepower delivered and inversely proportional to the cube root of the air density. Then:

$$V = 33.5 \sqrt[3]{\frac{3}{0.5} \times \frac{1}{1.1}} = 276 \text{ f.p.s.}$$

and $K_p = \frac{3440}{104} \times \frac{1}{276^2} \times 100 = 0.0032$

The corresponding K_p/K_a will be 12.8 and K_p will be 0.0032.

Thrust = Total Drag = $\left(\frac{1}{2} \rho A V^2 \right) \times \left(\frac{2.5}{1} \times 104 \times \frac{100}{12.8} \right)$

Since $\frac{1}{2} \rho A V^2 = 0.0032 \times 104 \times 276^2$ at altitude, we have:

$$\frac{220,000}{1} = \left(0.0032 \times 104 \times 0.0032 \times 104 \times \frac{2.5}{1} \times 104 \times \frac{100}{12.8} \right) \times T$$

Whence

$$F = 359 \text{ p.s.} = 184 \text{ m.p.h.}$$

Thus the assumption as to place velocity is correct for constant torque, so that they need not be accurate.

To find the propeller efficiency under the new conditions the thrust is first computed from the formula:

$$T = \frac{W}{V} \times \frac{F}{V} = \frac{359 \times 184 \times 0.86}{210} = 329 \text{ lb.}$$

Again the slipstream velocity will be

$$v = \frac{2T}{A \cdot V} = \frac{2 \times 329 \times 0.86 \times 0.00110}{3.14} = 34.5 \text{ m.p.h.}$$

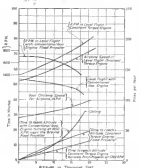


FIG. 22. CURVES AND LINES FOR PERFORMANCE OF AIRPLANE WITH CONSTANT TORQUE ENGINES COMPARED WITH THRUST OR POWER WITH A CONSTANT TORQUE ENGINE.

The theoretical efficiency will be

$$\eta = \frac{V}{V + v} = \frac{210}{210 + 34.5} = 0.858$$

Since V/v has the same value as before, the true angle of attack will be the same and the actual efficiency will again be equal to 85 per cent.

The product of the two will be before be 85 per cent, and that will be reduced to 80 per cent in the correction for the speed component of the slip stream.

It is apparent therefore that the efficiency of the propeller is the same for the two 359-hp conditions, provided the engine torque is kept constant.

These results can be deduced without making the calculations as follows: The total lift of the plane may be expressed as

$$W = E \cdot K \cdot V^2$$

in which E is constant for all altitudes and W and g are approximately constant. In order to maintain a constant angle of attack K must be held constant, then V^2 is constant, and V is inversely proportional to the square root of the density. For this condition the total drag of the machine will remain constant and the horsepower required to drive the plane will

be equal to the horsepower required at the ground level multiplied by the ratio of the plane velocity at altitude to the plane velocity at the ground.

If the speed of the propeller is kept proportional to the velocity of the plane, its Ad and its h efficiency will be constant. To maintain this speed a torque increment must be proportional to the ratio of V^2 multiplied by the inverse ratio

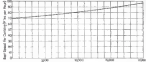


FIG. 23. POWER REQUIRED IN HORSEPOWER (hp) VERSUS AIRSPEED IN FEET PER SECOND (ft/sec). THE CONSTANT POWER REQUIRED IS SHOWN BY A HORIZONTAL LINE.

of the air density. But since V^2 is proportional to $1/\rho$ it is also inversely proportional to the ratio of air densities. It is a necessary consequence, to maintain only the constant horsepower proportional to the speed. This is obviously the definition of a engine with constant torque.

The ratio of thrust to be experienced from a plane fitted with a constant torque engine is shown graphically in Fig. 24.

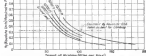


FIG. 24. THRUST IN POUNDS (lb) VERSUS AIRSPEED IN FEET PER SECOND (ft/sec). THE CONSTANT THRUST IS SHOWN BY A HORIZONTAL LINE.

If an altitude-which propeller were applied to this engine, the propeller speed could be maintained at 2100 r.p.m. during the whole climb. The horsepower available and the rate of climb, Figs. 22 and 23, indicate such an improvement in the performance that the variable pitch feature becomes doubly desirable.

Controls

Obviously, the control of such a plane is not limited by mechanical considerations, but only by the strength of the materials employed. The engine and propeller speed would continue to increase until reaching 60 g. The limiting speed of a propeller of this size would probably be about 2000 r.p.m. at this alt with the materials now on use. This would correspond to an air density equal to 31 per cent of that at the ground, and at an altitude of about 34,000 ft. As flying at greater heights it would be necessary to throttle the engine in order not to over-stress the propeller, so that the engine would be in the neighborhood of 45,000 ft.

In conclusion I wish to emphasize the fact that the variable-pitch propeller is, to a certain extent, limited to special cases. The design of a propeller for an engine with constant torque presents no difficulty, except that the climbing rate must be limited must be reduced, since the slip speed of the engine. This is not serious and can be entirely overcome by the use of a variable-pitch propeller. The interesting feature of this propeller is that the speed of the engine is not a function of the question is again speed of 300 m.p.h. at an altitude of 30,000 ft.

The De Havilland-IV Biplane*

The large airplane employed for long distance reconnaissance and for bomb dropping, is clearly laid out by the Aircraft Manufacturing Co., Ltd. (England). The different machines show some difference in construction and fitting according to the line of construction.

Both wings of the two struts biplane, which have distantly mounted tips, have a span of 104 ft. and a chord of 13 ft. 6 in.



FIG. 25. PLAN VIEW OF THE DE HAVILLAND-IV BIPLANE. FIG. 26. SIDE VIEW OF THE DE HAVILLAND-IV BIPLANE. FIG. 27. TOP VIEW OF THE DE HAVILLAND-IV BIPLANE. FIG. 28. FRONT VIEW OF THE DE HAVILLAND-IV BIPLANE.

The struts are 0.12 in. There is no steep-back, but the upper and lower planes are attached respectively to a center section 8 ft. 6 in. wide and fixed to the fuselage, at a distance equal to 114 in. The jibs, a lower seat in right rear the top plane center section, has a good view forward. The center section and wings have their leading portions cut away in the center to give a better view backward. The angle of incidence is 2 deg. at the body and at the top plane center section. Both wings occur, which are of spruce, are of one section, but solid where cover the consequent rise. At these points and where fittings occur the spruce are not only left solid but are reinforced by aluminum plates glued and screwed on. At a point between the main wingplane struts and the consequent rise of the wing tips the main wing spars are relieved and bonded with fabric.

The wing ribs are only very slightly cambered on the upper surface. Leading and trailing edges are slightly raked. In the struts on the two fuselages, which measure 21 in. in width and 13 in. in thickness, are glued and bonded with brass bolts the shear-pieces, which are provided with large supporting holes. The ribs at the struts and in the middle of the wings are of spruce, and are relieved and bonded with fabric.

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*Translation of an article in *Flumpert*, reproduced by copying of types.

each bay have struts as wide as 37 mm. and the web between the ribs is solid spruce between the struts. Between struts the ribs, which are spaced 270 to 400 mm. apart, there is a false rib extending from the leading edge to the front spar. The struts are fixed to the fuselage by a 1/2 in. (12 mm.) diameter wire, in an elliptical up to the middle of the main bay. The wing is supported in a yellowish-white color, and in such a way as to be in such a way that the struts are not in the line of a drop of water.



The main covers of the wing tips, which in all the planes are hinged to the fuselage, are made of 1.5 mm. thick aluminum, which is reinforced on either side by layers of woven glass. The same construction is employed for the elevator and rudder controls. At their outer end, where the control cables are attached, the aluminum covers are doubled over. The very simply arranged wing bracing consists of struts from wire, while the external cable bracing takes the form of cables.

The wing struts are, as in many other English machines, of woven glass. They are made of 1.5 mm. thick sheet metal plates at the outer plane struts, and 2 mm. and 3 mm. at the inner struts, being fixed to the angle of the bracing wires, are secured to the wing spars by two long screws, which are passed through the center of the spar with a second smaller one

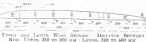


FIG. 30. DETAIL VIEW OF THE WING STRUCTURE. FIG. 31. DETAIL VIEW OF THE WING STRUCTURE.

passing down the outside of the spar. The outerplane struts, which are made of spruce, are of streamline section, and the inner struts are kept straighter than the outer ones. On the inside of the struts are short steel sheet ribs, which are fixed aluminum plates, which are attached to the struts. Through these are passed 8 mm. steel bolts, which run in the forked end of the spar bolts, the bracing wires keeping the



FIG. 31. DETAIL VIEW OF THE WING STRUCTURE. FIG. 32. DETAIL VIEW OF THE WING STRUCTURE.

struts in place. The struts for the top plane center section are similarly attached.

The body is covered with ply-wood up to a point behind the main fuselage, then with a solid wood up without the use of diagonal bracing. The longitudinal are of spruce and the upper layers of oak. The fuselage as well as supports for the wings and engine are made of ply-wood, some of which is 1/2 in. (12 mm.) and as much as 20 mm. thick. The struts for the attachment of the left wing are each connected with two 5 mm. through-bolts. The upper portion of the body is covered with a material as a girder, and the longitudinal are of oak. The fuselage as well as supports for the wings and engine are made of ply-wood, some of which is 1/2 in. (12 mm.) and as much as 20 mm. thick. The struts for the attachment of the left wing are each connected with two 5 mm. through-bolts. The upper portion of the body is covered with a material as a girder, and the longitudinal are of oak. The fuselage as well as supports for the wings and engine are made of ply-wood, some of which is 1/2 in. (12 mm.) and as much as 20 mm. thick. The struts for the attachment of the left wing are each connected with two 5 mm. through-bolts. The upper portion of the body is covered with a material as a girder, and the longitudinal are of oak.

From the observer's seat vertical fore-and-aft movement is easily obtained.

¹Wien, der Börsen Abend Wien, p. 105 1914.

Digest of the Foreign Aeronautical Press

L'Aeronautica, March, 1918

New Type of Observation Balloon.—A new type of observation balloon has just been produced in Italy to the design of Major Francesco, director of the Italian Army Aerial Corps, and Major Avorio, chief of the Aeronautica Section of the Italian Army.

On being tested this observation balloon has given altogether more satisfactory results than the former. It is distinguished by its ballast, which can be easily used in wind velocities increasing to 10 m. per second—and the vacuum type



MAKING OF A GERMAN PILOT IN A VISION BALLOON.
(By Agence France Presse)

that have been derived therefrom, such as, for instance, the twisted balloon of Clermont.

Without entering into a detailed discussion of its features, it may be stated that the Francesco-Avorio balloon is especially a superior aerially fitted with stabilizing means, which has been developed as an aerial, and acts as a kite. Its inherent stability is of such magnitude that the balloon may be employed in winds up to 20 m. per second without it is disturbed in the slightest. It offers the stability of the balloon, which, owing to its method of suspension, adheres to its form the stability of the whole system.

Further, advantage this balloon affords is that for an equal load and volume it requires a smaller gas volume than the typical hydrogen balloon, thus a Francesco-Avorio of 2000 cu. m. capacity may correspond in its performance to a similar one of 1500 cu. m. capacity. It follows, that owing to its smaller dimensions the F-A. balloon affords greater facility for transportation and housing, and a smaller target to destruction fire, while the degree of gas required for its flight is correspondingly decreased relative to other types.

On the other hand, its lesser resistance to the most potent to engine mounting makes of another virtue, while its ability to ascend rapidly virtually overcomes the automobile obstacle. Finally the increased safety of the envelope permits it to afford descent at a much higher rate of speed than is possible heretofore. The improved form of this balloon as well as its considerable stability make it furthermore possible to mount defense armament on board.

It may be finally added that should the moving cable snap, the Francesco-Avorio balloon may be operated as a free balloon.

Flying (London), June 26, 1918

Alfred Dreyfus in the Air.—In the matter of air work, it seems, the cinema made his last but few equally at the beginning of the present series of adventures. Unusually in the past of March 21, he had concentrated and kept him as much as any staff and as many air pilots as could be managed, and simultaneously with the opening of the first battle, he tried to all that he could do.

In order to keep up to something like equality, he brought forward air men as a rule far beyond the normal; it was a point which he had long been considering, for even more than in the matter of industry or artillery reinforcements, the air forces demand their full period of training, and this business

of continual reinforcement soon brought the German air forces down to a dangerously low level of quality. It is said that pilots have been replaced in whom a single hour was a thing unknown, and, whatever truth there may be in this, it is certain that many pilots in many cases are unprepared that they will not rise a light to lose strength than a there is one superiority. That is the first that irregularly equalized out, a definite tendency to maintain even a fairly good discipline, and the probability of being wiped out of the air altogether, and for night hours, in the course of the first three or four months, when the economy of Austria stands to the Allied air forces will begin to make itself felt along the front.

It was a good deal that the German navy, away back in the days of early April some flying did a good deal of damage in a legitimate way, apart from the bombing operations by submarine craft. For almost two weeks ago here, in the past, it was as present, though, the Allied pilots held the air, and every time that it goes up in the knowledge that it is "up against it," and that Allied superiority is increasing.



GERMAN WING VALUING MYER
(By Agence France Presse)

Flight, June 20, 1918

Break Air Arms in Germany.—The following tells from the number of German towns made by British airmen during May, together with the military objectives struck, and the number of towns each town was made:

Number of towns	Number of towns	Number of towns	Number of towns
1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28
29	30	31	32
33	34	35	36
37	38	39	40
41	42	43	44
45	46	47	48
49	50	51	52
53	54	55	56
57	58	59	60
61	62	63	64
65	66	67	68
69	70	71	72
73	74	75	76
77	78	79	80
81	82	83	84
85	86	87	88
89	90	91	92
93	94	95	96
97	98	99	100

News of the Fortnight

British Production Discouraged

When Arthur A. London, Chief of the Production Division, Bureau of Aircraft Production, was in Buffalo, N. Y., last week, he ordered the discontinuance of the manufacture of British lighting planes. Later he prepared the following statement for publication:

"Early last year it was decided, when the demand for increased flight was great, to put into production at the Curtiss Co. as airplanes (bureau of the British aircraft) a British high plane, fitted to a 12-cylinder Liberty motor. Recent flying tests have demonstrated that this machine is compromised by the lack of stability, and is not satisfactory for the purpose of having sufficient speed for war purposes. Inasmuch as the B-14 is in production and meets the requirements and can be produced in large numbers, it is decided, so that there will be no increase in the number of planes going over the sea, we are compelled to take the position that the country will be best served by immediately discontinuing British production. We will make every effort to quickly put into production at the Curtiss Co. the B-14 and the Curtiss. These planes are well known and are not experimental in any way. We know that we will be able to use the same factory, to re-equip the people who will have to be laid off under this order."

Some work order as has been formed for several weeks and makes no small change in the production program, but is helped from the head of Mr. London's statement that it is proposed to make up the deficiency by an increased production of 50 B-14 single seat pursuit planes, Curtiss single seaters and B-14s, two-seaters and probably Blériot Page machines.

It is understood that the program called for the production by the Curtiss Aeroplane & Motor Corp. of 1000 or more British fighting machines, and that of this about fifty had previously been completed at the time the cancellation order was issued.

Improvement in Charge of Air Mail

Capt. H. L. Rogers of the United States Army, who has been acting as assistant to Capt. William H. H. Rogers, in charge of the Army Air Mail Service, has been promoted to Major, and is now in charge of the service. He is now in charge of the service, and is now in charge of the service.

Captain Rogers is a recognized authority on transportation and mechanical maintenance and served in the transportation of the service. He is now in charge of the service, and is now in charge of the service.

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Flying Training for Ground Officers

Major Gen. W. L. Kirby, Director of Military Aeronautics, has issued this memorandum concerning the instruction of flying officers of his Division:

Section A.

1. The policy of permitting non-flying officers to be trained as pilots is announced by the Department of Military Aeronautics for the purpose of building up the Air Service rapid to cope with the rapidly growing combat divisions between air-flying and ground-flying. It is to be noted that all officers who are trained as pilots are of more value to the Air Service than one who is not trained as a pilot, even though his military duties do not require him to pilot as a pilot.

2. With the following exceptions the instruction of the details of this policy rests entirely with the commanding officers of the various aviation sections.

a. No non-flying officer will be given flying instruction until after he has successfully passed the prescribed physical examination for pilot.

b. The following instructions for non-flying officers must not interfere in any way with the training of pilots.

c. Flying instruction for non-flying officers must not interfere in any way with the ordinary post and squadron duties of the officers.

d. Flying instruction for non-flying officers must be given at the convenience of the commanding officer. It is not expected that all non-flying officers who desire flying training will be given flying training at once.

It is intended that this policy will be effected gradually.

Section B.

1. In view of the recent change in policy of the Department of Military Aeronautics with regard to non-flying officers being allowed to take up flying instruction, it has become necessary to formulate certain rules governing the method to be pursued in handling flying officers who are not pilots. It is to be noted that all non-flying officers who desire flying training will be given flying training at once.

First. Men who have had an military experience when they were in the service, and who are now in the service, must not be given flying instruction until after they have passed the prescribed physical examination for pilot.

Second. Men who have had an military experience when they were in the service, and who are now in the service, must not be given flying instruction until after they have passed the prescribed physical examination for pilot.

Third. Men who have had an military experience when they were in the service, and who are now in the service, must not be given flying instruction until after they have passed the prescribed physical examination for pilot.

Fourth. Men who have had an military experience when they were in the service, and who are now in the service, must not be given flying instruction until after they have passed the prescribed physical examination for pilot.

Fifth. Men who have had an military experience when they were in the service, and who are now in the service, must not be given flying instruction until after they have passed the prescribed physical examination for pilot.

Sixth. Men who have had an military experience when they were in the service, and who are now in the service, must not be given flying instruction until after they have passed the prescribed physical examination for pilot.

Seventh. Men who have had an military experience when they were in the service, and who are now in the service, must not be given flying instruction until after they have passed the prescribed physical examination for pilot.

Eighth. Men who have had an military experience when they were in the service, and who are now in the service, must not be given flying instruction until after they have passed the prescribed physical examination for pilot.

Ninth. Men who have had an military experience when they were in the service, and who are now in the service, must not be given flying instruction until after they have passed the prescribed physical examination for pilot.

New Section for Aeronautics

Second Lieut. F. B. Russell has been appointed senior in the Department of Military Aeronautics.

ON THE PRESS

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